LESSON 4 – BASIC MACHINE LEARNING APPLICATIONS

Dr. Jack Hong

Adjunct Faculty, Lee Kong Chian School of Business, SMU Co-founder, Research Room Pte. Ltd.

INTRODUCTION TO MACHINE LEARNING

INTRODUCTION

- We will not cover all machine learning methods, but only those that are most effective and widely used
 - There are too many algorithms out there!
- Machine learning algorithms are classified into 2 categories:
 - Supervised learning
 - Unsupervised learning

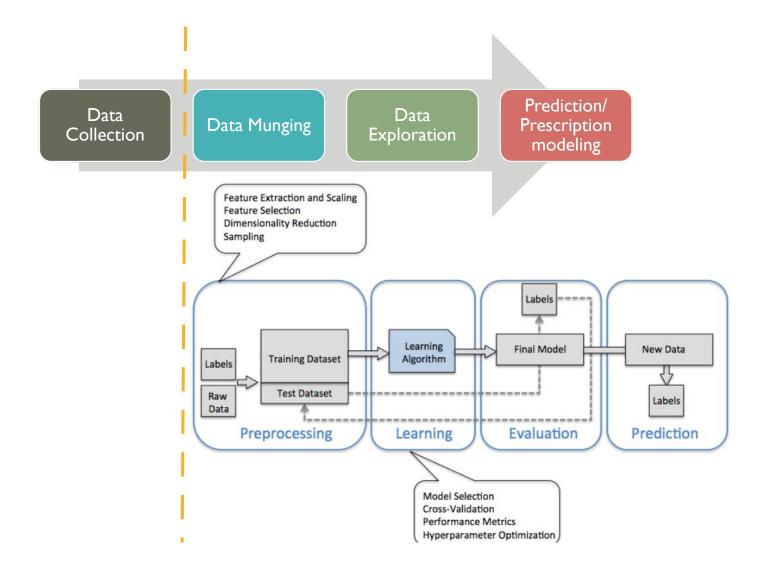
SUPERVISED LEARNING

- Train a model to learn from labeled training data
 - Each observation is classified with an outcome (e.g. Spam or Not Spam) or a continuous variable (as in regression)
 - We extract features from each observation
 - In the above example, the words that occur in each email
 - Can also include other variables such as time, name of sender, title etc
 - Compute a probability of outcome (spam or not spam) associated with the presence and absence of the features
 - In the case of the continuous variable, to minimize the loss function
- Reinforcement learning is about improving a model's performance based on its interaction with the environment
 - Uses reward function compared to loss function
 - E.g. Chess engine: System decides moves based on the state of the board, and the reward function will determine win or lose as the outcome

UNSUPERVISED LEARNING

- In supervised learning, we know the answer beforehand
- In unsupervised learning, we deal with unlabeled data
 - Unsupervised learning techniques allow us to explore the data structure to extract information without any prior guidance
 - Clustering: grouping observations by similarity and dissimilarity
 - Dimensionality reduction: removing noise from data while compressing high dimensional data into smaller ones

WHERE DOES MACHINE LEARNING FIT IN THE DATA SCIENCE VALUE CHAIN?



 $T_{H}(D) = \sum_{i=1}^{c} P(y^{i}|x^{i}; w) \qquad I_{H}(D) = -\sum_{i=1}^{c} P(i|t) \log_{2} p(i|t)$

 $|k(x^{i}, x^{j})| = exp(-\gamma ||x^{i} - x^{j}||^{2})$ $p(y \ge k) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} {n \choose k} \varepsilon^{k} (1 - \varepsilon)^{n-k}$

 $\delta_2 = (W_2)^7 \delta_3 \times \delta^3 \delta_3$

DATA MUNGING IN PYTHON

DATA MUNGING IN PYTHON

- Data munging is a necessary but dreaded process in data analytics
 - Involves cleaning, transforming, and setting data the right way
- Compared to R, Python is more powerful (and convenient) in data munging
 - Data scientists use the pandas package for this purpose
 - Pandas is developed by Wes McKinney, a Financial Economist
 - a financial economist to handle economics and finance datasets (refer to panel data setup in Lesson 3)
 - Pandas got its name not from the animal but because it was meant for handling panel data.
 - The package was so useful that its now the de-facto data munging package in Python

IMPORTANT TECHNIQUES USING PANDAS AND SCIKIT-LEARN

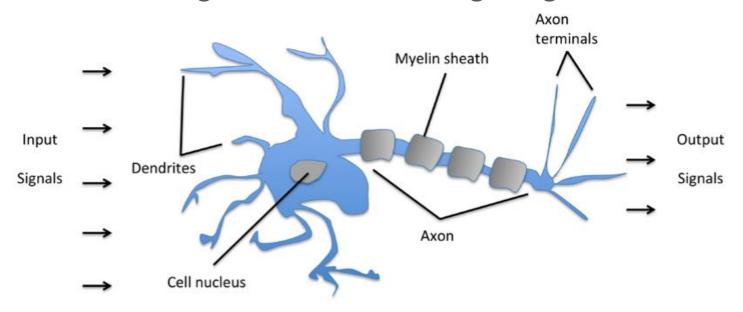
- I'll cover a few key techniques that you will use frequently
 - Upload "ML introduction.ipynb" and "wine.csv" into your Jupyter dashboard
 - Follow the comments and instructions
 - This notebook tutorial covers data munging and predictive modeling
- To know more about pandas, you may refer to <u>https://pandas.pydata.org/pandas-</u> <u>docs/stable/10min.html</u> for the official 10 minutes guide to pandas

PERCEPTRON LEARNING

WHERE IT ALL STARTED FOR MACHINE LEARNING

THE BEGINNINGS OF MACHINE LEARNING

- Early works in machine learning attempts to mimic how a brain cell works, in simplistic forms
 - Simple logic gate with binary outputs, triggered by the level/strength of accumulated signal against a threshold



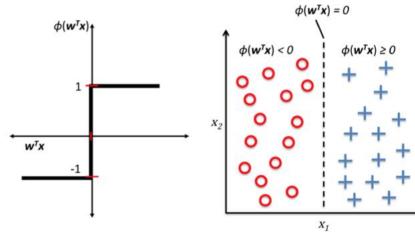
PERCEPTRON LEARNING - BASIC ML ILLUSTRATION

- Based on the Neuron model, Frank Rosenblatt conceptualized a learning rule that would
 - Automatically learn the optimal weight coefficients
 - Multiplied with the input features
 - Decide whether a neuron fires or not
- This is akin to a classification task
- In the below example, we use a step function (if x > 0.5, y = red) (else y = blue)
 - All values of x will then be mapped into a y-value of 1 or 0
 - Example: If humidity is > 60%, it will rain, else it will not

$$\boldsymbol{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_m \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix}$$

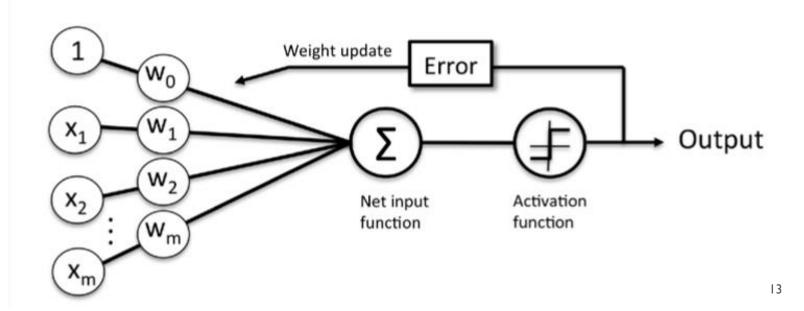
weights

input



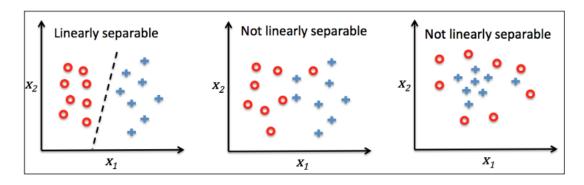
HOW DOES THE MODEL LEARN?

- An ML model learns by iteration
- It chooses a set of starting weights for each feature input
- Throws it through the activation function and compares the predicted output against the actual
- The model continuously attempts to reduce the error (actual – predicted) by changing the weights for the input features



PERCEPTRON LEARNING

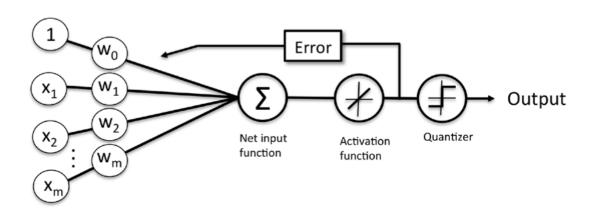
- Intuitively, we can see that this method adopts a linear separation mechanism to split samples via a boundary
 - However, if the samples cannot be perfectly separated, then the perceptron will never terminate
 - The solution is to allow some kind of error threshold (e.g. 20% misclassification)



- We can generalize this perceptron model and change the step function to other functional forms
 - Such as the linear and logistic models we learnt in Lesson 3
- Machine learning is very closely related to statistical modeling

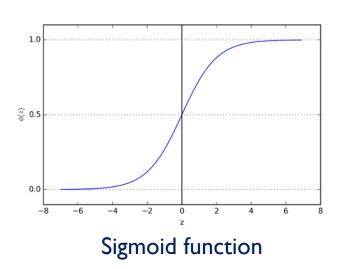
LINEAR REGRESSION IN MACHINE LEARNING

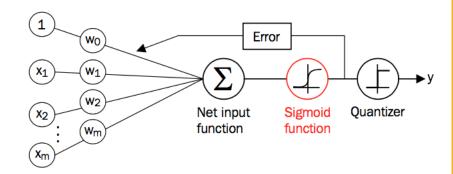
- The linear regression model is implemented in machine learning by using a linear activation function
- This ML model is known as Adaline



LOGISTIC REGRESSION IN MACHINE LEARNING

- Recall that logistic regression uses a logit function to map values of x to a range bounded by (0, 1)
- In machine learning, such a function is known as the sigmoid function due to its S-shape
- Implementing the logistic regression in ML is simply using the sigmoid function as the activation function





GRADIENT DESCENT I

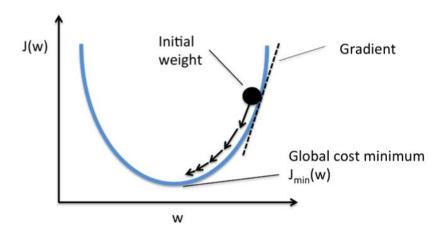
- By changing the activation function to a linear function, we are attempting to fit data into a linear form, similar to the linear regression
 - The model error is now computed based on a linear prediction
- Like regression models, the objective of the ML algorithm is to find a set of weights for each input feature that minimizes predictive errors (mathematically, its defined as the sum of squared errors)

$$J(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} (y^{(i)} - \phi(z^{(i)}))^{2}$$

- This is the general principle of supervised machine learning algorithms:
 - Define an objective function to be optimized by reducing the error between predicted and actual values
 - Shift the weights to find the minimum error rate achievable (in machine learning speak, we also call error the cost)

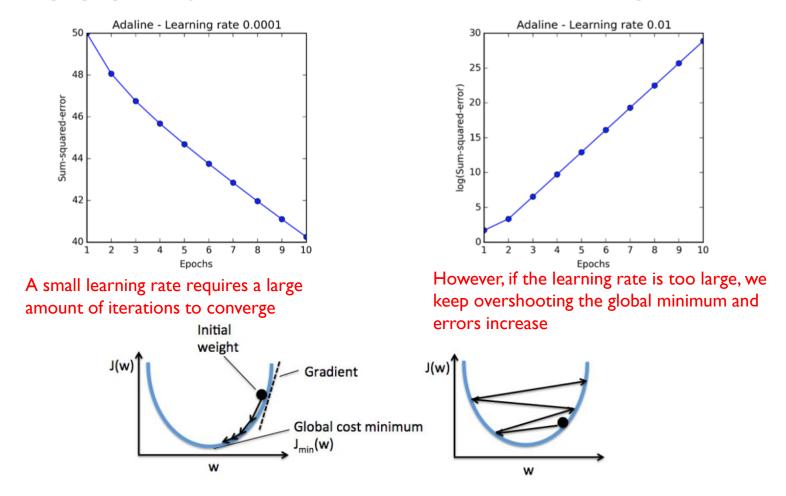
GRADIENT DESCENT II

Analogous to climbing down a hill to reach the bottom of the valley



- Hyper-parameters
 - For the above model, there are 2 parameters that we need to care about as we perform the gradient descent
 - Number of iterations: How many times should we move the weights around?
 - Learning rate: How much movement should each iteration allow?

CHOOSING HYPERPARAMETERS



- Hyperparameter tuning (finding the best hyperparameter) is an indispensable step in machine learning modeling
 - There are many tricks to hyperparameter tuning but we will not cover them in this course

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 $T_{H}(D) = \sum_{i=1}^{c} P(y^{i}|x^{i}; w) \qquad I_{H}(D) = -\sum_{i=1}^{c} P(i|t) \log_{2} p(i|t)$

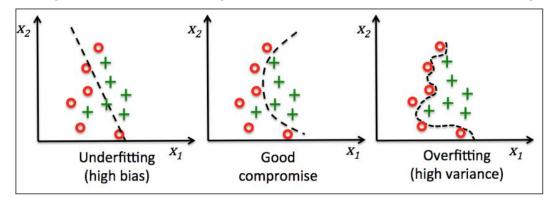
 $R(x^{i}, x^{j}) = exp(-\gamma ||x^{j} - x^{j}||^{2})$ $p(y \ge k) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} {n \choose k} \varepsilon^{k} (1 - \varepsilon)^{n-k}$

 $\delta_2 = (W_2)^7 \delta_3 \times \delta^3 \delta_3$

PREDICTIVE ACCURACY

OVERFITTING AND UNDERFITTING

- Recall in Lesson 3, we had to split the dataset into training and test set
 - Because a model tends to perform well on data it has "seen before" (insample data)
 - This has an upward bias on reported predictive accuracy
 - Performs well on training data, but badly on out-sample data
 - The solution is to train the model in-sample and test it on out-sample data
 - The name of this problem is known as "overfitting"
- In contrast to overfitting, underfitting is another issue where the model is too naïve (e.g. too little features) to capture significant patterns in the training data
 - Reported predictive accuracy is weak for both in and out-sample data



REGULARIZATION TO COMBAT OVER AND UNDER FITTING

- Finding a good trade-off requires some form of tuning on the complexity of the model
- Regularization is a good method for this purpose
 - Can handle collinearity and filter noise
 - Introduce bias to penalize extreme parameter weights
 - Called LI or L2 regularization, or a mix of both
 - Most commonly used: L2 regularization (also called shrinkage or weight decay)
- Regularization parameters are included as hyperparameters in most ML algorithms in Python's scikit-learn package

 $(T_i \hat{T}_i)^{-1} \hat{T}_i' \hat{y}_i \quad L(w) = \prod_{i=1}^r P(y^i | x^i; w) \quad I_H(t) = -\sum_{i=1}^r P(i | t) \log_2 p(i | t)$

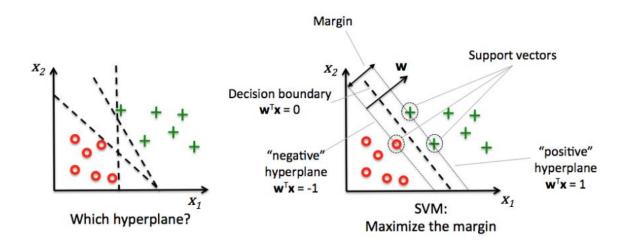
 $k(x^{i}, x^{j}) = exp(-\gamma ||x^{j} - x^{j}||^{2})$ $p(y \ge k) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} {n \choose k} \varepsilon^{k} (1 - \varepsilon)^{n-k}$

 $\delta_2 = (W_2)^7 \delta_3 \times \delta^3 \delta_3$

SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES

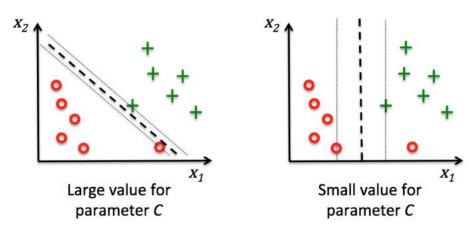
SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINES (SVM)

- A popular and powerful ML algorithm extended from the Perceptron model
- Recall the optimization objective of the Perceptron model is to minimize errors
 - SVM's optimization objective is to maximize the distance between observations separated by a decision boundary called the hyperplane
 - In other words, SVM optimizes by maximizing the margin
 - Note that hyperplanes can be multi-dimensional (which is often the case)



SEPARATION WITH ERRORS

- In the event that a perfect cut cannot be established, the SVM model allows for a threshold of misclassification errors
 - In the below example, the parameter C defines this threshold



The value of C corresponds to the size of the penalties for misclassification errors

SVM FOR NONLINEAR PROBLEMS

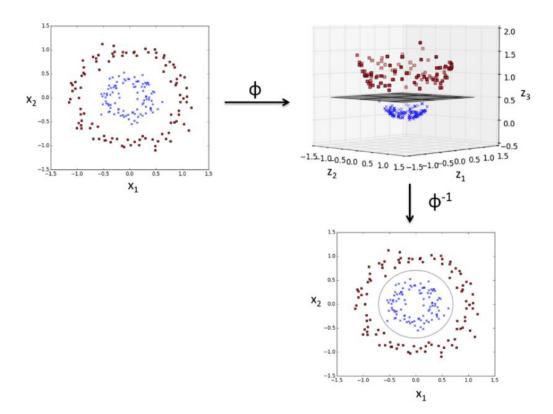
Kernel SVM

- Used when its not possible for us to separate positive and negative outcomes using linear methods
- The idea is to create nonlinear combinations of the original features/variables and project them onto a higher dimensional space via a mapping function
 - then we can do a linear hyperplane in this higher dimensional space
 - map it back to the original lower dimensional space after we are done

MAPPING FUNCTION

• Example:

- Transform a 2-dimensional dataset into a 3-dimensional one
 - In this case, the closer the values of X_1 and X_2 are to the center, the lower the Z value is
- Use a linear function to cut a line between the red and blue observations
- Transform the results back into 2-d



 $(T_i^{\dagger} \hat{I}_i)^{-1} \hat{I}_i^{\dagger} \hat{y}_i \quad L(w) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(y^i | x^i, w) \quad I_H(t) = -\sum_{i=1}^{c} p(i | t) \log_2 p(i | t)$

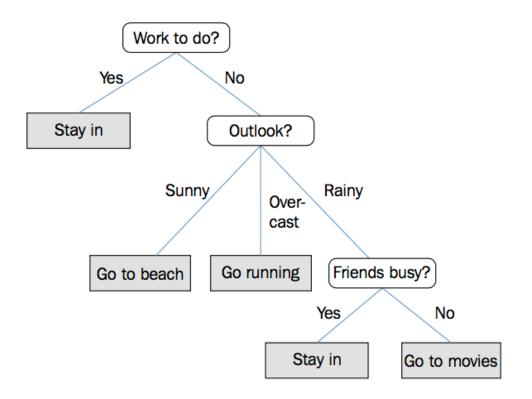
 $k(x^i,x^j) = exp\left(-\gamma \left\|x^i - x^j\right\|^2\right) \qquad p(y \ge k) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \varepsilon^k (1 - \varepsilon)^{n-k}$

DECISION TREES

 $\delta_{Z} = (W_{Z})^{T} \delta_{J} \times \delta^{T} \delta_{J}$

DECISION TREES

- Decision trees are so named because the model breaks the data down by decision-based questions
 - Features can be categorical, as well as continuous



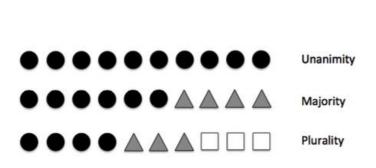
IMPLEMENTING DECISION TREE LEARNING

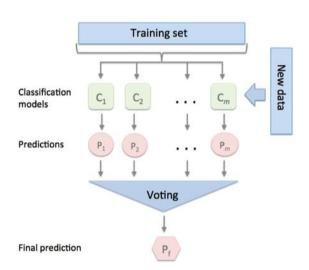
- The splitting rule at each node of the tree acts on the feature that results in the largest Information Gain (IG)
 - This is repeated at each child node until the observations at each node all belong to the same class
- As such, decision tree models are extremely good at fitting
 - The model can create, shrink, and expand boxes to envelop datapoints with the same outcome variable
 - However, such a procedure is prone to overfitting
 - Techniques such as pruning (sets a limit for the maximal depth of the tree) help to mitigate this

ENSEMBLE METHODS

WHAT ARE ENSEMBLE METHODS?

- Combining individual classifiers into a meta-classifier can realize better out-of-sample performance
- Generally, ensemble methods collect predictions from multiple models and use a voting mechanism to choose the best result





RANDOM FOREST

- Random Forest is a type of ensemble method built on decision trees
 - RF is simply a collection of decision trees
- A very simple adaptation but often results in drastic improvements to predictive accuracy
 - Good performance, scalable and easy to use
- Combining weak learners to build a strong learner
 - The idea that multiple independent models give better results than a single model
 - Assuming 100 classifiers that are each correct only 55% of the time
 - However, the probability that the majority of them are correct increases to 82% (cumulative binomial probability)
- Other ensemble methods: bagging and boosting

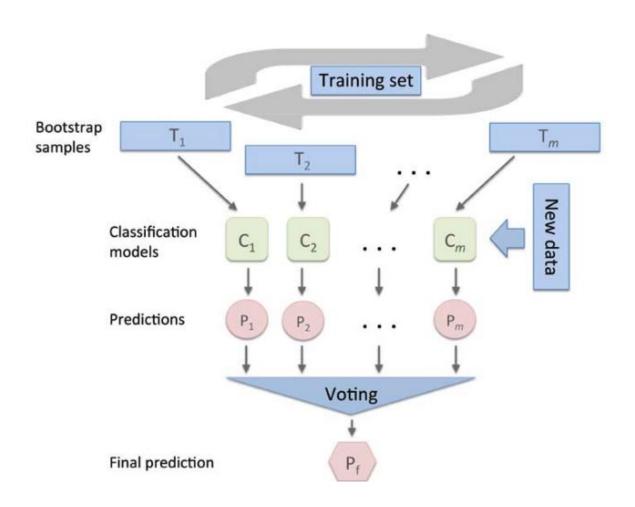
IMPLEMENTING RANDOM FOREST

- Bootstrap a sample of size n
 - Bootstrapping is a method of sample selection where we make random selections with replacement
- Grow a decision tree using this sample
 - At each node, randomly select d features without replacement
 - Split this node using the best feature
- Repeat the above steps k times
- Aggregate the prediction by each tree and assign the class to the data via majority voting

SOME REMARKS

- Random forest model is a black box
 - Cannot be interpreted like a decision tree where you know that branches come out of important features
 - Random forest is a bunch of trees, and the prediction is a result of majority voting (i.e. most of the trees predict this outcome)
- However, RF has the following advantages
 - No need to worry about hyperparameter values
 - Don't need to prune the forest
 - Only need to choose the number of trees
 - The larger the number, the better the performance
 - However, the larger the number, the more expensive the computational cost

BAGGING — AN ALTERNATIVE TO MAJORITY VOTING

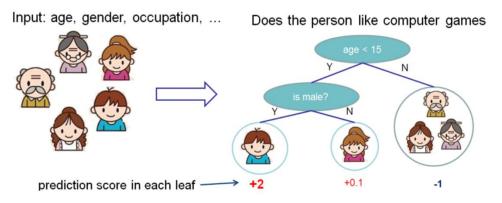


BOOSTING

- 3 commonly-used techniques
 - Adaptive boosting (adaboost)
 - A type of classifier boosting
 - Stochastic Gradient boosting
 - A type of regression boosting
 - Extreme gradient boosting (xgboost)
 - A type of tree ensemble (combination of classification and regression trees)
 - · Fits a regularization variable in the objective function to prevent over-fitting
- The basic concept behind boosting is to start with very simple base classifiers (slightly better than random guessing)
 - These simple classifiers are called weak learners (e.g. 2-layer decision tree they call this a stump)
 - Continuously make the weak learners learn from misclassified samples
 - Draw a random subset without replacement and train a weak learner
 - Draw a second subset without replacement, add 50% of the misclassifed samples in (1), and train another weak learner
 - Find the training samples that both (I) and (2) disagree, and train a third weak learner
 - Combine all 3 learners via majority voting
 - Note that boosting algorithms have a tendency to overfit

XGBOOST

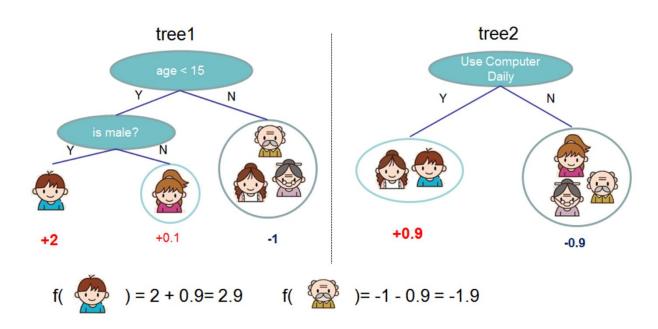
- Tree ensemble
 - Combination of classification and regression trees (CART)



- In normal decision trees, the leaf contains the decision values
 - In CART, the leaves contain a real-valued score

TREE ENSEMBLE

- Example of 2 trees
 - Prediction scores are summed to get the final score
 - Note that the two trees complement each other



SOME COMMENTS ABOUT ENSEMBLE TECHNIQUES

- Non-trivial increases in computational complexity for (usually) modest improvements in predictive performance
- \$1 million Netflix Grand Prize
 - For 3 years straight, thousands of teams could only improve upon the previous years results
 - Model tuning, factorization, simple ensembles etc
 - Could not beat the challenge of 10% improvement over the native Netflix recommendation algorithm
 - In 2009, a combined team (BellKors Pragmatic Chaos) beat the challenge using a complex blend of ensemble techniques
 - However, Netflix never implemented the winning model due to its complexity (development, execution and maintenance efforts that are not feasible for real-world application)

"[...] additional accuracy gains that we measured did not seem to justify the engineering effort needed to bring them into a production environment."

EXERCISE

- Upload "machine learning l.ipynb" into your Jupyter dashboard
 - Follow the comments and codes and feel free to try out new codes on your own
 - The visualization codes are meant to create graphs to help you picture the shape of the solution, don't crack your head trying to understand the codes!
 - The point is to help you build your intuition to what the ML model does

 $T_{H}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{c} p(i|t) \log_2 p(i|t)$

 $k(x^{i}, x^{j}) = exp\left(-\gamma ||x^{i} - x^{j}||^{2}\right)$

 $p(y \ge k) = \sum_{k}^{n} {n \choose k} \varepsilon^{k} (1 - \varepsilon)^{n-k}$

 $\delta_{\mathcal{Z}} = (W_{\mathcal{Z}})^T \delta_{\mathcal{X}} \times \partial \phi_{\mathcal{Z}_{\mathcal{Y}}}$

UNSUPERVISED LEARNING

UNSUPERVISED LEARNING

- Up till this point, we have been dealing with problems where we have an answer to (outcome)
 - All our regression equations are setup with an outcome variable on the LHS

• What happens when we suspect that there are relationships, subsets or clusters in our data, but have no answers upfront?

CLUSTERING

- Clustering is a category of unsupervised learning that helps us discover hidden structures and natural grouping in data based on a similarity function
 - K-means
 - Hierarchical
 - Density-based
 - Graph-based (basis of network theory)
- Other unsupervised learning algorithms
 - Association rules (Apriori)
 - Mixture models, Factor models, and Latent models

K-MEANS CLUSTERING

- The most widely used clustering algorithm in academia and industry
 - Easy to implement
 - Computationally efficient

Concept

 Find groups of similar objects based on a distance function that makes them more related to each other than to objects in other groups

Issues

- Requires us to specify number of clusters k
- Inappropriate choice of k can result in poor clustering
 - We can determine the optimal number of k using elbow and silhouette plots
- Clusters do not overlap and are not hierarchical
- Clusters can be empty!

STEPS TO IMPLEMENT K-MEANS

- Randomly pick k centroids from the sample points
 - Remember that we have to manually specify the number of clusters k
- Assign every sample to its nearest centroid
- Move the centroids to the center of the samples
- Repeat steps 2 and 3 until
 - Cluster assignments no longer change
 - User defined threshold has been reached
 - Number of iterations
 - Error rate

DISTANCE MEASURE

- The key mathematical function in clustering is the distance function
 - This is a measure of similarity between objects
 - The nearer 2 objects are together, than to others, the more likely they belong together in a cluster
- The most commonly used distance function is the squared Euclidean distance
 - Note that in 2-d form, it's the same as how we measure straight-line distance between 2 objects
 - The generalized vector form is: $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})^2 = \sum_{j=1}^m (x_j y_j)^2 = ||\mathbf{x} \mathbf{y}||_2^2$
- The objective is to minimize the within-cluster sum of squared errors

EXERCISE

- Upload "Machine Learning II.ipynb" into your dashboard
 - Follow the comments and instructions
 - Use the visualization to build your intuition as to the shape of the solution

MODEL EVALUATION AND HYPERPARAMETER TUNING

NEXT STEPS

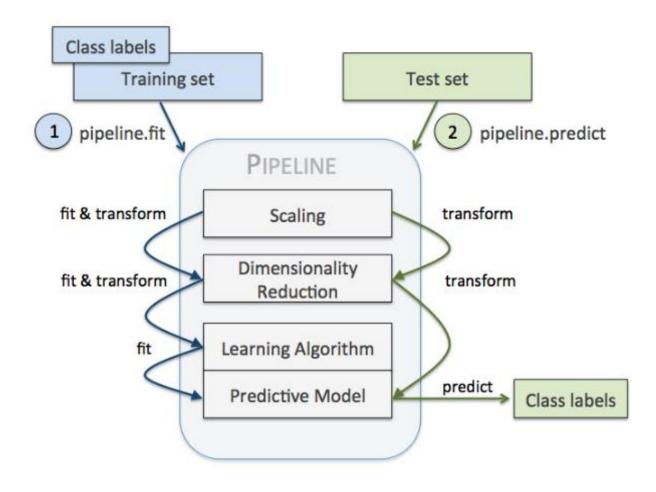
- Previous sections have familiarized us with the basics of machine learning algorithms
- Building good models, however, require more than just knowing when to use which algorithms
- We need to have a framework for evaluating model performances in response to algorithm fine-tuning
 - Some of these are best practices contributed by the data science community

USING PIPELINES TO STREAMLINE WORKFLOWS

- You may have noticed that we have been using and reusing multiple data preprocessing, compression and hyperparameters
 - Some of these processes require that we fit training and testing datasets with the same parameters (e.g. scaling and compression transformation)

- Scikit-learn comes with a very useful tool that enhances this workflow
 - Known as the Pipeline

PIPELINE WORKFLOW

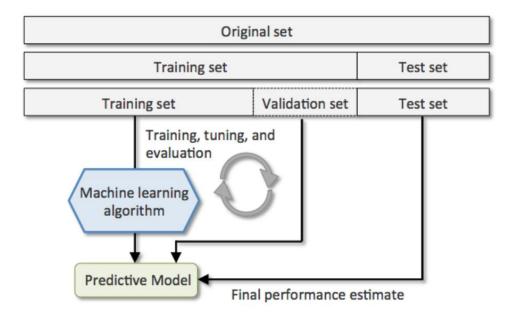


ASSESSING MODEL PERFORMANCE

- As covered in the previous sessions, model performance should be evaluated on 'never-seen-before' data or out-ofsample data
- Model performance can fall under the following 3 types:
 - Underfitting (model too simple, poor in-sample and out-sample performance)
 - Overfitting (model too complex, not generalizable and thus poor out-sample performance)
 - Good balance (this is what we want)
- We can use cross-validation techniques to figure out what the good balance is
 - Holdout method
 - K-fold

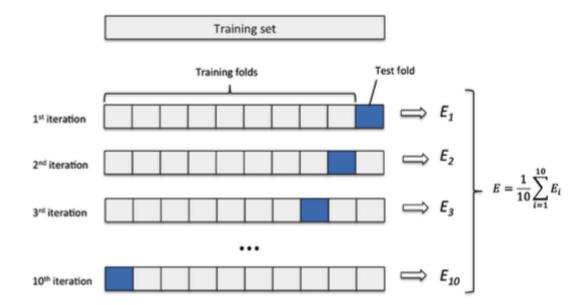
THE HOLDOUT METHOD

- Split the data into 3 sets:
 - Training set: used to fit the models
 - Validation set: models with the best performance on this set will be selected
 - Test set: final performance estimate
- However, performance estimates are sensitive to how we partition the data
 - Not the best CV method, though many still use this



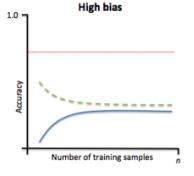
K-FOLD CROSS VALIDATION

- The preferred method for performance evaluation
 - 10 folds is the standard
 - But we will need to increase the number of folds for smaller and smaller datasets (up to leave-one-out for very small datasets)
 - · Note that this will increase computational time
 - Also, the training samples will be pretty much similar to each other (the fitted models don't differ much from each other)
- To handle unequal class proportions (which can be a huge issue if the inequality is large), we can preserve the proportions in each fold
 - This is known as the stratified k-fold cross-validation

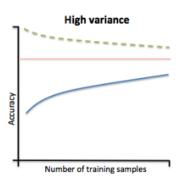


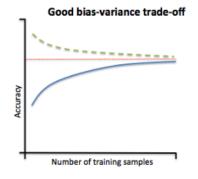
PERFORMANCE DIAGNOSTICS

- We can use learning and validation curves to diagnose our results
- Learning curves
 - Estimate underfitting vs overfitting
 - Graph on upper-left has low training and cv accuracy (underfitting)
 - Increase variables through collection or transformation
 - Decrease regularization (increasing c)
 - Graph on upper-right has high training but low cv accuracy (overfitting)
 - Increase observations
 - Decrease complexity through feature selection or extraction
 - Increase regularization (decreasing c)
- Validation curves
 - Improve models by varying parameters



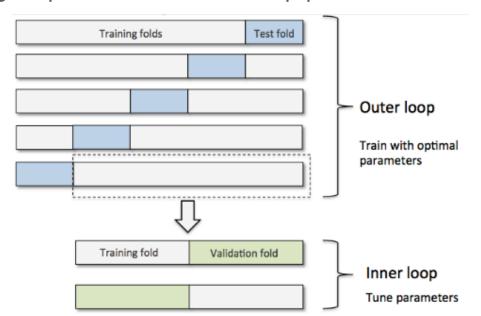






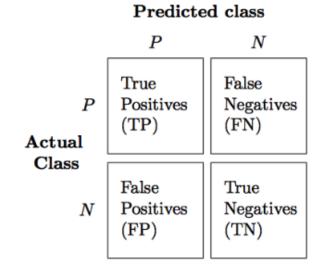
OTHER USEFUL TECHNIQUES

- Grid search
 - Similar to validation curves, we specify a list of values for each hyperparameter
 - This method finds the optimal combination of hyperparameter values in a brute force exhaustive manner
- Nested cross-validation
 - Performing this test on different ML algorithms can aid us in choosing the best candidate model
 - Exhibits good performance in academic papers



CONFUSION MATRIX

- We can drill deeper into the accuracy measure to evaluate a model's precision and recall
- Precision, recall and the associated F1-score is represented by a confusion matrix
 - The % of true and false positive/negative
 - Precision is the % of true positives over true and false positives
 - How many of the predicted positives are indeed true?
 - Recall is the % of true positives over true positives + false negatives
 - How many of the actual positives are correctly predicted?
 - The FI score is 2 x (Precision x Recall)/(Precision + Recall)



EXERCISE

- Upload "Tuning and Performance.ipynb" and "wdbc.csv" into your dashboard
 - Follow the comments and instructions

- As part of a final exercise, we will let you explore a financial dataset using the techniques that we have learnt
 - Upload "key_financials.xlsx" into your Jupyter dashboard
 - Upload "financial_exercise.ipynb" into your Jupyter dashboard
 - Follow the comments and codes and attempt the questions

QUESTIONSP

Email any queries to jackhong@smu.edu.sg